

THE LEISURE HOUR.

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"BEHOLD IN THESE WHAT LEISURE HOURS DEMAND,—AMUSEMENT AND TRUE KNOWLEDGE HAND IN HAND."—*Couper.*



ON THE ALAMEDA.

THE HOUSE OF DE VALDEZ.

BY FRANCES BROWNE.

CHAPTER XIV.—LIFE WITH DONA CONSTANZA.

DONA CONSTANZA was one of those women with whom we meet in history, and sometimes in private life, endowed with none of the feminine graces, but in their stead possessing a masculine understanding, and a capacity beyond that of most men for the management of public or important affairs, like Margaret of Parma and Elizabeth of England in the

preceding generation. Even in her youth the doña had little pretension to beauty, but being the only daughter of one of the richest and most influential families in New Castile, knights jostled in her honour, and guitars tinkled beneath her window, and out of many suitors she selected Don Armando Fonseca, a nobleman of fortune and family equal to her own, and also of a sickly constitution and a governable mind. The marriage united two houses in which church preferment and church influence were almost hereditary: the Taveras and the FONSECAS

had been alternately Cardinal Archbishops of Toledo for nearly two hundred years before the doña's time, and an ample distribution of rich abbeys and well-endowed sees had been consequently made among their minor branches.

The doña's own brother was then Cardinal Archbishop, a churchman of the Medicean type, with whom the great business of life was patronising artists and ornamenting his cathedral, which he did with great taste and greater expenditure; but for church affairs that could not be elegantly illustrated, Cardinal Tavera had neither time nor inclination. However, his sister had both; and as Don Armando had died in proper time, leaving no heirs but his widow, to whom his whole fortune was bequeathed on condition that she would expend a suitable sum every year on masses for his soul, Doña Constanza was ready to take the reins of clerical government out of her brother's willing hand.

Deputies were the order of the day in Spain. The absolute king left everything to his minister Olivarez; the artistic primate left everything to his sister; and had the king's deputy possessed the character and capacity of the primate's, things would have gone better with the land. Doña Constanza corresponded in Latin, French, and Spanish, had an extensive acquaintance with church and state affairs, and considerable skill in the arts of organising and directing. A sincere and devoted Catholic, her reason and conscience were bound by the dogmas of her church and subservient to its interests; but apart from these, the doña was both just and generous, disposed to exercise her own judgment, and little swayed by priest or confessor. Her talents, rank, and fortune would have made her an acquisition to anybody, and the Roman Church, which had profited by the zeal and abilities of many a noble lady, from the days of the Countess Matilda, who so ably seconded Gregory VII in his crusade against the married clergy, tacitly accepted her services, and gave her in return influence and occupation.

The doña's great Gothic mansion and princely retinue presented a noble specimen of high Castilian life under the kings of the Austrian line. Something between a palace and a convent, the ceremonials of Catholic religion and Spanish etiquette were maintained with equal strictness; the hours were early and regular as a Nuremberg clock of excellent mechanism and ponderous stroke could make them; mass was celebrated at six o'clock every morning by the household chaplain, and in the household chapel, which occupied one side of the courtyard, and might have served for a country parish church, but that it was more richly decorated with paintings, sculpture, and splendid drapery, not to speak of the banners, arms, and memorial tablets of the FONSECAS who slept in the family vault below. Meals were served in the great hall, where the doña's secretaries, gentlemen-at-arms, stewards, and pages sat at one table, and the doña's waiting gentlewomen, old and young, at another; while the lady of the mansion, with her most distinguished visitors, her chaplain, and her almoner, sat at the high table on the dais, where nothing but gold plate was used; and behind them a reader, in a chair resembling a pulpit, edified the company with chapters from the lives of the saints or books of Roman theology, of which there was good store in the doña's library. A similar arrangement, according to rank and sex, prevailed in the common hall, where the inferior division of the house-

hold had their refectory, for every kitchen-maid and errand-boy had a fixed place and unalienable rights in the doña's establishment. The feasts and fasts of the church were punctually observed: the former with appropriate dishes and the performance of mysteries—a sort of play on some religious subject common in all Europe in the Middle Ages, and long preserved in unchanging Spain—by the doña's pages by way of after entertainment; and the latter with meagre allowances and penitential psalms sung by the choristers of the doña's chapel. Great Castilian families invited no company except on days of festivity for some household event—weddings, christenings, and the like. Doña Constanza had no such events to celebrate, but her house was seldom empty of notable visitors,—abbots and bishops on the move for church purposes sought at once her hospitality and counsel; ambassadors on their way to Madrid stayed to pay their respects to the primate's mighty sister; and dons and doñas of sufficient rank, from any corner of Spain or Spain's still wide dominions, came to seek her friendship or solicit her influence in aid of their frequent lawsuits and family schemes.

From morning till night Doña Constanza was busy in her chamber of audience, where she received homage from those distinguished travellers, lay and clerical, seated on a chair of state, covered with crimson velvet, with such of her pages and gentlewomen as were on duty for the day standing behind, two secretaries similarly situated, one on either side, and her gentlemen-at-arms lining the richly-tapestried walls and keeping guard at the door. When the hours of audience were over, she was busy in her cabinet conducting correspondence or discussing matters of business with some of her numerous agents or clients; and when cabinet hours were also finished, she retired to the more private apartment shut in by the ante-chamber, where her gentlewomen worked at their embroidery frames, and looking out on the high-walled garden, where couriers bearing secret despatches, or visitors whose coming and objects were not to be made public, could find their way by a postern gate and an outside stair.

The doña was busy, for her operations were extensive and complicated—more so, indeed, than they might have been as deputy for the Cardinal Archbishop; but, with all her prudence and understanding, she was sanguine and given to great expectations, and her pious ambition was to bring the nations that had gone astray at the Reformation back to the Roman fold.

The number of *employés* kept at her private expense in every town and corner of Protestant Europe was probably known to herself, but nobody else ever guessed it. Sometimes they were doing wonders in one country, sometimes in another; but latterly, the doña's hopes, energies, and disbursements were concentrated on England, where the wavering and subservient policy of James I, the tendency of his queen, and the teaching of his bishops, promised, according to her agents' reports, a sure and speedy triumph.

In the midst of such weighty concerns, Doña Constanza had little time for relaxation or amusement; but, like most of the great Castilian ladies, little of the kind served her. She attended mass in the cathedral, where her carved and painted stall may yet be seen, every saint's-day in great state, with her full train of gentlewomen, pages, and men-at-arms, a silver cross borne before her as though she had

been an abbess; her sedan chair, a conveyance yet limited to royal and noble use, borne by four footmen in gold-laced livery; and her jewelled missal on a crimson velvet cushion carried by another close behind. Sometimes she went in similar state, but without the cross and missal, to visit her brother the cardinal, and her other distinguished relatives, the Aleide of Toledo, or the Chancellor of the Province. And these were Doña Constanza's relaxations. As for amusements, she considered that a serious drama, such as Lope de Vega wrote since he took holy orders, and a bull-fight properly got up, were the only things suitable for a lady of years and taste. It was her opinion that an *auto-da-fé* might edify the common people who required to be warned against heresy, but it was decidedly beneath hidalgo families, except under special circumstances such as occurred in her early youth, when Philip, with his whole court attended a notable one at Valladolid. But the doña was accustomed to add, "People of condition do not frequent such places now."

Such were the house and the life into which the daughter of De Valdez and the daughter of the shepherd were removed from the empty, poverty-stricken mansion in ruinous La Moreria and the rustic venta of the mountains. But youth soon reconciles itself to new surroundings; they got accustomed to the splendid formalities and well-appointed routine, to the dignified gravity of Castilian manners, and the stately seriousness of Doña Constanza's rule. After all, it was not like that of Sister Ignacia. Poor Gulinda could live under it, and Rosada, perhaps because the blue blood of Cordova had flowed from the same Gothic fountain, became so much at home in the great hall, and so accomplished in the strict etiquette, as to gain the entire approbation of the primate's sister. "My young cousin improves daily," she said, in confidence to Señora Camilla; "her manner and carriage are rapidly acquiring the dignity requisite for a doña of Castile. Under your care, I doubt not that she will soon lose every trace of Andalusian levity, though, to do Rosada justice, her air was always distinguished for a southern señorita." The doña showed her approval by deeds as well as words. Rosada always sat with her at the high table on the dais; occupied a sedan carried after her own by the same number of gold-laced footmen, while all the train, including her old companion and her new duenna, marched behind to mass on the saints'-days. As the young cousin advanced in Castilian strictness of deportment, she was presented to the noble and reverend branches of the Tavera and Fonseca families. The Cardinal Archbishop himself took particular notice of her, and after bestowing his benediction, his eminence deigned to compliment the southern señorita on her very good looks, and observed that, as far as he remembered, the like were more frequent in Cordova than Toledo. Moreover, Doña Constanza was liberal, and thought beauty worthy at least of good clothes: gowns of Catalonian silk, kirtles of French satin, mantillas of the true Castilian cut, those Spanish gloves which were deemed fitting presents for the princesses of other lands, Indian fans, and lofty combs of ivory set with jewels, were powerful auxiliaries to native charms and graces; and all these, and more, in the shape of necklaces, ear-rings, and bracelets, the doña bestowed upon Rosada, not, as the judicious lady remarked, to encourage youthful vanity or worldly-mindedness, but that her young cousin might

appear as became a Fonseca—for the name of De Valdez was never permitted to be mentioned in her house—and get a fair chance of obtaining a suitable husband.

To the subject of her education Doña Constanza was equally attentive. The señorita—such was Rosada's appointed title in the household—had a bower next to the doña's private suite of apartments, a tiring-room, an oratory, a sleeping-chamber for herself and her waiting gentlewoman, another for her duenna, that the two young people might be under proper supervision by night as well as by day, and a cabinet of instruction, where Father Tomaso taught her the true Castilian pronunciation—only to be acquired in Toledo, according to the proverb—to read the Latin psalms and prayers better than she had learned from Jacinta, and to write Spanish better than any lady of Jacinta's generation could do. There also Señora Camilla gave her lessons on the spinet, an ancestor of our much-employed piano—for the doña did not approve of young ladies learning the guitar, because caballeros were accustomed to sing love-songs to it under windows; and likewise instructed her in tapestry work and embroidery, which completed the list of accomplishments required in a Castilian señorita of the first rank. Gulinda was permitted to share in that high-class schooling, but there was a vein of shyness, or strangeness, or different blood in the mountain girl, which made her learn little more than she had brought with her from San Juan. She could play the guitar and the castanet, sing mountain songs to the one, and dance mountain jigs to the other, had such doings been permitted in the Casa de Fonseca; but on the spinet she never accomplished a tune. At the tapestry work and embroidery she rivalled Señora Camilla herself, and, moreover, made point lace equal to the good duenna—said to be the best the banished Moriscos made—in her young days; but when the doña's chaplain had done his best at teaching her to read the Latin psalms—he it remembered the good man never taught his pupils to understand what they read—poor Gulinda would whisper to the only friend she had, "I wish Father Crispino had not taken away from me the beautiful book he taught me to read in the Moorish tongue, there were such lovely tales and sad laments in it; but he said it would not be safe to bring it here, and I must not speak of it to anybody but you."

For all the difference that coming to Toledo had made in their appointments, the shepherd's daughter and the daughter of De Valdez had still the same bond between them. Gulinda had always looked up to Rosada as her superior and patroness in right of the blue blood, and still more, perhaps, in right of a stronger and less timid mind than her own; and the true-hearted girl rejoiced to see her placed according to her merits at the high table and in the sedan, danced round her when she put on the new splendours of silk and jewellery, and was well content with the humbler share which Doña Constanza thought suitable for a waiting gentlewoman. In that great strange house the young girls were everything to each other; both were free from envy and deceit, those rank and common weeds which poison life alike in the court and in the cottage. Under the heavy business of being made a grand señorita with a faultless carriage and feet never to be seen, Rosada found help and comfort in her trusty and light-hearted companion, in the cold Castile.

They talked at all hours, when out of the doña's hearing, of their own southern land beyond the mountains, and all that they had left behind them there. Except in the presence of the great lady, the work of conformity to the new life was not particularly difficult. Father Tomaso was a good-natured Franciscan friar, who would have been jovial had the like been practicable in his present quarters. As it was, he took his ease in the post, giving neither himself nor anybody else much trouble; he taught the girls, said mass, and confessed the whole household, except the doña, who thought a Jesuit father more fit to be entrusted with the conscience of a primate's sister, in the same easy and convenient way. Then Rosada and her gentlewoman had to do with the very flower of duennas. Señora Camilla would never fall from her high office through any failure of precision or ceremony in the presence of her mighty patroness; there she was the mirror of etiquette, and the pattern of propriety. Before the pages and the waiting gentlewomen she was also on her guard; but in the bower, at work or play, the girls might do as they pleased, for being good girls they pleased to do nothing wrong, and Señora Camilla was only the oldest girl of the three. Moreover, there was a great relaxation allowed to them every evening. Doña Constanza recollected that young people required amusement and ought to see something of the world, and for the double purpose she organised, according to Castilian views of life, a small procession to set forth every evening to the Alameda. It consisted of the Señorita Rosada and her waiting gentlewoman in front, then Señora Camilla, and lastly, a discreet footman set apart for the service on account of his trustworthiness, who carried all their fans in one hand and a stout staff in the other. His name was Diego. He had been twenty years in the doña's service, and was therefore not young; his march might have served a lord chamberlain at a court ball; he was grossly ignorant, grossly superstitious, and very proud of being a Castilian; his special business was, besides carrying the fans, to warn off intrusive caballeros, and chastise plebeian presumption, if the like could be supposed to cross the path of a Fonseca.

The Alameda of the Castilian town had not the fountains and palm-trees of Cordova: a strip of meadow land without the walls, planted with rose-trees on one side, and low seats beneath their shadow, while on the other a course on which gallants might show their horsemanship, a gravel walk for promenaders of rank, and a dusty unregarded space beyond in which the common people might congregate or lounge, made up the recreation-ground of the sober, silent city. But it served the señors and señoras who performed dignified curvetting on the course, or stately pacing along the gravel walk, as well as the palm-shaded Alamedas of the south served its more sprightly people. All Toledo who were young or active enough or not otherwise occupied, poured down to the strip of meadow land on the banks of the lonely Tagus about vesper time, the only tolerable hour for out-going in the fervid summer of that dry and treeless province. The sober manners and faces of the Castilian crowd were strange and sombre to the two young southerners; but they were well pleased to find themselves out of the great house and in the open air, where life and youth were to be seen; and the hour of the Alameda was to them the crown of the day. It was something

similar to Señora Camilla,—she said her time of expecting admiration was passed; of course it was vain and foolish to expect the like at any time—the girls were to remember that; but she knew they were wise enough to be left with honest Diego on the Alameda while she went for a moment to see a friend, and good enough not to mention the matter to anybody in the doña's mansion. The fact was that Señora Camilla had a younger sister, who, having no provision, had been destined to a convent, as Rosada was so short a time before, but instead of entering the cloister, she married a thriving vintner, and was of course reckoned a blot on the family escutcheon.

The vintner's shop and dwelling were situated at the end of a street hard by the Alameda, and the old sisterly affection had not died in Señora Camilla's breast; but for a duenna in the Fonseca service to enter such a place would be a breach of discipline too flagrant for the doña's Christian charity. However, she was on the Alameda, there was a back way, both short and convenient, to the vintner's house, and in the faith which has proved false to so many, namely, that it would not be found out, Señora Camilla ventured to leave her charge in the care of the discreet Diego, having previously bribed the man with a reale, and bound over the girls to secrecy, while she went to solace herself with a cup of good wine and a gossip with her sister.

The duenna had been doing so at least every second evening for some time, when on one visit she happened to stay longer than usual. Honest Diego grew impatient, he took out his reale and looked at it, thought how much wine it would buy, and that there was a certain widow his friend, gossip, and some people said sweetheart—for Diego was yet unmarried—who kept a vintner's shop in a street at no great distance. The discreet footman said nothing of his intentions—the girls were sitting on a rather retired seat from which they could see all that passed, observing that few of the men were handsome and most of the women plain, that none of them walked or rode as they did in Andalusia—he had been stationed behind them, not near enough to hear their conversation, honest Diego was too well disciplined for that,—but when Rosada looked back they were alone. She would not have been alarmed at the circumstance, though it was strange, and they were not accustomed to be alone on the Alameda; but slowly sauntering towards them with a careless and impudent air, she saw a young man dressed in the height of Castilian fashion, but pale, puny, and with a look at once sinister and sneaking. Her first impulse was to take Gulinda by the hand and move away; but on second thoughts she recollected how easily the mountain girl was frightened, and that they had no protection in the crowd. She therefore resolved to take no notice, and keep her seat with all the composure she could assume. Scarcely was the resolution taken, when Gulinda, whose eyes had been upon the course, touched her hand with, "Dear Rosada, do you see yon graceful caballero, how he is staring at you?"

"Nay, Gulinda, 'tis yourself he is gazing on," said Rosada.

"Oh! he has such good manners; he would not stare at any lady, I am sure. How handsome and graceful he is!" and Gulinda shifted her mantilla and lowered her fan to get a better view.

Well might she say that the stranger was handsome and graceful, but his beauty and grace re-

sembled her own, with the resemblance that comes by blood and race. His features were of the same eastern, or rather Arabian mould, his complexion of the same clear olive, and his figure of the same fine but slender proportions. Those who were old enough to have seen the banished race might have thought him a Morisco, but there was no trace of the Moorish garb about him. His hair, which was jet black, fell in curls upon his shoulders after a fashion common to the cavaliers of France and England, but rarely seen in Spain. His hat was ornamented in the same cavalier fashion, with a long ostrich feather, a pendant gem, and a small rose-coloured silk glove, in proof that he was the bondman of some fair lady. His mantle was of purple velvet, his doublet of amber-coloured satin; his sword had a jewelled hilt and a blade of the light elastic steel made only in Damascus, and he rode an Arab horse, the graceful motion and elegant symmetry of which seemed to equal his own.

Rosada was observing him with a curious eye. There was something, she knew not what, about the handsome stranger familiar to her memory, and she hoped that her averted head would foil the impudent-looking young man, when all at once there was a pluck at her mantilla, and she turned to see the latter standing close by her side.

He addressed her in the high-flown strain employed by the impertinence as well as the chivalry of the age. Young as Rosada was, and unacquainted with the world, she had the spirit of her race, and promptly answered,—

"Sir caballero, I am not accustomed to converse with strangers, and I pray you, for courtesy sake, to go upon your way."

Rising with all the dignity of a De Valdez, Rosada took Gulinda by the hand and moved away. But he got up too.

Rosada had a dread that her companion might get terrified and fly, but Gulinda did not take to that wonted resource. Her eye was on the handsome horseman; he had dropped the reins on the neck of his Arab steed, with some words which the creature appeared to understand, for it moved to the side of the course and stood still while he sprang from its back, dashed across the Alameda, and before the girls could well mark his movements, stepped between them and the intruder, whom he confronted with his hand on his sword.

"Señor Don Adolpho de Tavera," he said, "it ill becomes a man intended for the church, and a gentleman intended for anything, to force his company and conversation on a lady who manifestly has no mind to them."

"And who are you, pray, who take upon yourself to interfere with your betters?" said the young man, endeavouring to put on a bold face, while he stepped back out of reach.

"Come here behind the Alameda, and I will let you know which is the better man," said the handsome stranger, advancing upon him.

"I will not get up a brawl; I will not break the law," cried the impudent young man; but at that moment, just as the crowd began to gather round them, a gentleman in a clerical dress came rushing up and caught him by the arm.

"Take home your pupil, Father Francisco, and teach him better manners, or he will disgrace your prudent society some day. He has not sense enough to be let go about an Alameda by himself,"

and the stranger concluded with a whisper, of which nothing could be heard but the name of Doña Constanza; but it had the effect of making both the clerical and the lay gentleman walk off without another word. "Ladies," he continued, turning to the two girls, "where are your friends? where is your duenna? Ah! yes, I see her coming, but she will be some minutes yet getting through the crowd, who are thickening in the rear of yonder Jesuit and his hopeful scholar. Señorita Gulinda, do you remember the bower by the stream in San Juan de Roca?"

"Oh, have you been there?" said Gulinda, not a bit frightened. "Are my father and mother well?"

"They are both well, and Pedro Perez has given up stealing about their house. They say he raged and swore enough to split the mountains, when he found that somebody had gone to Toledo. You, Señorita Rosada, will remember San Juan too. I wish I had news to give you of one who was there at a feast; but here is a packet of letters that may bring better times to your family. Deliver it to Doña Constanza for their sakes," and he placed a small sealed packet addressed to the doña in Rosada's hand. "Here comes your duenna. Farewell—farewell for the present, Gulinda," and the stranger had crossed the Alameda and sprang upon his horse, as Señora Camilla came up out of breath from one street of the town, and Diego at the top of his speed from another.

"Oh, my dear girls! Oh, Diego, how could you?" were the first words of the poor duenna.

"I am sure I didn't think anything would happen," said honest Diego.

"No, you did not, I dare say; and neither there would with some people. There is my friend Sophia, duenna to the alcaide's three plain daughters,—she can leave those girls on the Alameda any evening, and go and see her friends, for nobody ever minds them. My dears, I don't blame your faces; it was all my fault, and I'll never do the like again,—but I must say Señora Sophia has an easy charge. Dear Diego"—an unuttered wish for vengeance upon him was in the duenna's eyes—"you and I had better keep this affair between ourselves; I am sure the girls are too good to say a word about it,—promise me that you won't, my dears,—the like shall never happen again. But, stop!" she hastily added, catching sight of the packet in Rosada's hand, "what have you got there, señora? You know you must not take presents from gallants."

"It is no present," said Rosada, an indignant flush lighting up her face, "but a packet of letters which a gentleman whom I know not asked me to deliver to the doña, after he had rebuked an impertinent fellow who was annoying us."

"Oh, then he was a proper person. I knew you were too wise to do anything wrong, my dear; but just let me speak to you for a moment here by ourselves," and Señora Camilla turned into a convenient lane, for by this time they were wending homeward through one of the quiet streets of Toledo. "Now, my dear señorita," she began, taking the young girl affectionately by the hand, "if you deliver these letters to the doña, you will be questioned concerning the gentleman who gave them to you and all the circumstances of time and place, and it will come out that I left you on the Alameda. You would not see your poor old Camilla, who was always kind to you, cast out of a good home with disgrace in her old days?"

"Indeed, I would not," said the kindly Rosada.

"Well, then, my dear, give me the packet. I will make it appear that the gentleman gave it to me, and you shall never be questioned about it. The doña is always getting a variety of messages and letters on church affairs, I'll warrant, in all sorts of odd ways."

"Here it is; but you will surely deliver it to Doña Constanza. The gentleman said it concerned my family, and they have not been fortunate," said Rosada, as she handed over the packet.

"Deliver it, my dear! I would not keep back a letter addressed to the doña for all Spain; one might get into the dungeons of the Inquisition by such a business. Be sure her ladyship shall get the packet, and I'll never forget your kindness in helping me out of the scrape. Oh, that villain, Diego! After me giving him a reale out of my own pocket! If I get safe over this affair, I'll never be guilty of the like again."

CLERICAL NAMES.

WHAT'S in a name? Certainly in many cases a peculiar name has been the means of advancing or retarding a man's temporal welfare. I am not now alluding to the well-known case of the "Norfolk Howard" family, who, after all, have not greatly benefited by the change of name, if the derivation of the word "Howard" is to be depended upon. But probably a London firm in existence some twenty years ago, of the name of "Makepeace and Goodwill," enjoyed a larger share of public custom than they otherwise would have done, if their names had been simply "Jones and Brown."

If you take any class of men, or any one profession, you will not find a greater variety in nomenclature than in the ranks of the clergy of the Established Church.* It is amusing to see how many of their surnames are derived from natural history. We learn from a clergy list before us that there are no less than twenty-three "Bulls," nineteen "Bullocks," and six "Mules." Several clergymen also rejoice in the cognomen of "Stagg" and "Ram," "Lamb" and "Veal," "Deer" and "Steere," "Hogg" and "Wolfe," "Colt" and "Cattle," "Otter" and "Beaver," "Hare" and "Rabbitt," "Catt" and "Kitten," and "Fox" and "Kidd." In this latter case we might suppose the two gentlemen would work well together as vicar and curate.

The names from birds are most varied and numerous. There are "Ducks" and "Drakes," but singularly enough, while there are no geese or ganders, there are plenty of "Goslings." Then we have "Robin" and "Wren," "Swallow" and "Martin," "Raven" and "Rook," "Dove" and "Falcon," "Crane" and "Stork," "Parrot" and "Jay," "Nightingale" and "Crowe," and a variety of others from the *Raptores*, *Insessores* (incumbents?), *Scansores*, and other natural families.

Then there are those who have taken the names of domestic fowls, such as "Cock," "Cockerell," "Henn," "Peacock," and "Swan," to which may be added warlike "Eagles" and shy "Woodcocks."

Think not, however, that the clergy confine them-

selves to the earth, or even the air; for they dive into the depths of the sea, and fetch from thence their cognomens of "Salmon" and "Codd," "Turbett" and "Mullett," "Whiting" and "Smelt," "Herring" and "Sturgeon," and from the ponds and pools they catch their "Roach" and "Pike," while among their ranks they muster a "Crabb," a "Seal," and a "Whale."

Next we observe that the clergy possess, to some limited extent, an eye for colour; for they deck themselves in "White" and "Black," in "Orange," in "Green" and "Grey," in "Brown" and in "Rose,"—in fact, in as many hues as ought to satisfy the most ritualistic of their order.

Though the clergy of the Establishment are evidently migratory in their habits, for they travel from "East" to "West," and from "North" to "South," yet at the same time are they eminently patriotic, for "England" and "Wales," "Brittain" and "Ireland," are all represented; still it is some what odd that while there are "English," "Welsh," and "Scotts," there are no "Irish" to be found in their ranks.

The human frame has not escaped the observation of these clergy, for "Foot," "Hand," "Legg," "Bone," "Blood," "Hair," "Tooth," "Back," and the "Body" itself, all of them find their component parts.

We know that as a body the clergy do not derive large sums from their labours; perhaps this is the reason why we find none of them rejoicing in the name of "Gold;" in point of fact, there is only a little "Silver," five "Pennies," and one "Farthing" among them.

Perhaps this state of poverty tends to make them industrious, for the trades are largely represented. "Miller" and "Baker," "Sawyer" and "Carpenter," "Plummer" and "Painter," "Farmer" and "Shepherd," "Carter" and "Horseman," "Cooper" and "Wheelwright," "Groom" and "Gardener," "Butcher" and "Carver," "Mason" and "Slater," etc., etc., are all represented.

From daily experience we know that the clergy have an aristocratic leaning, and therefore are not surprised to find some of them claiming the title of "King," "Prince," "Duke," "Earl," "Baron," "Lord," and "Knight."

One is almost tempted to believe that these grave divines have a gleam of humour, and do not mind caricaturing themselves, for how else comes it that there is a "Mr. Large," a "Mr. Small," "Mr. Bigge," "Mr. Little," "Mr. Slight," "Mr. Stoute," and "Mr. Short"?

The reason why clergy are not averse to litigation may be accounted for by their possessing among them a "Chancellor," a "Judge," a "Justice," and a "Sergeant."

It is also a curious fact that, seemingly having ransacked the air, earth, and sea for surnames, the clergy have delved deep into the bowels of the earth and dug from thence various metals. Naturally, we expect a little "Brass" in the order, yet we neither like to see their members as bright as "Zinke," as cold as "Stone," as hard as "Steele," as light as "Coke," or as dark as "Cole."

And, in conclusion, though the list is by no means exhausted, we may compare the rectors to goodly "Field" of "Wheat," the curates to a poor crop of "Oates," but interspersed with fruitful families, like "Grapes" on a spreading "Vine."

* We would have hesitated to take this liberty with clerical names but the reader will excuse us when we state that the writer is himself a much-esteemed vicar of the Established Church, and that his own name appears in the article.

CAMBRIDGE AND ITS COLLEGES.

BY THE REV. F. ARNOLD.

II.

THE Senate House, though open to criticism, is an imposing building—beautiful by reason of its exquisite finish and the justness of its proportions. So to speak, it is the very heart and centre of the university, from whence radiate all its life and influences. It is the throne and seat of academical authority. All the public business of the university is transacted here, and when the Queen visits it she takes her seat here on the chancellor's chair. Every undergraduate learns to contemplate this edifice with the liveliest feelings, whether of alarm or of hope and expectation; for the time will assuredly come when he will have to take his seat in that splendid room, and have to encounter sundry papers of terse questions to which he will be expected to give a proportion of satisfactory answers.

Exteriorly this building, which is of Portland stone, is of the Corinthian order. It is a modern structure, the former Senate House having consisted of a part of the present Public Library, and was completed and opened in 1730. The expense was £20,000, towards which both George I and George II made very large contributions. The grand front faces the south, but the usual entrance is by the east-end door. Internally the room is very handsome. It is ornamented with carved wainscoting, and is surrounded by galleries of Norway oak capable of containing a thousand persons. The floor is of black-and-white marble; the ceiling has much rich ornamentation. There are four marble statues—two of the regal Georges who did so much for the building; the third of the Duke of Somerset, who was chancellor of the university in the year of the English Revolution; and the fourth of William Pitt. Pitt's statue is of Ferrara marble, by Nolken. The edifice, as we said, is open to criticism; but when Mr. Gladstone was speaking here he was pleased to call it "a beautifully decorated building."

The Senate House is the scene of all the examinations, and of various public and somewhat festal celebrations. It is an interesting sight to see a university examination here. As the hands on Great St. Mary's Church approach the hour of nine, eight men, examiners or officials, take their stations at the head of the eight lines of tables, each armed with a quantity of examination papers, wet from the press. Directly the clock strikes, the distributor gives each man of his line a paper; as soon as he has finished with his own men, he goes up another row to supplement any distributor who may have been less active and adroit. Writing-paper, blotting-paper, quills, and ink, are supplied *ad libitum* to the examined. The examination lasts till twelve; at one o'clock it recommences, and lasts for another three hours. The work is all paper work; the Oxford *vivâ voce* system has no place here. The first examination, called the Previous Examination, or more properly the Little Go, comes off toward the end of the second year. There are now different ways of obtaining a degree, which will be afterwards explained; but the old Cambridge system is still the general one, and is not likely to be superseded. This examination comes off on a Tuesday morning soon after New Year's day. In accordance with the

luxurious spirit of the times, the Senate House is now heated with hot air; but in old days men used to have to write with fingers palsied with cold, and wrapt up in great coats beneath the academic toga. For three days the examination continues, and although it only embraces the subjects for a pass, it exacts a severe measure of training and study. At the end of these three days there is a pause of ten days, while the work of all the men is being looked over. Then those who have passed the minimum required by the examiners are announced as having acquitted themselves so as to deserve mathematical honours. Those whose names are not mentioned are understood to be "plucked," a word of direst omen to undergraduates. The majority of men, having passed, are quite content therewith, and do not care to go further; but those intrepid spirits, the candidates for honours, persevere. They go in for five days' additional examination, commencing with the differential calculus, and going on to the highest calculations of astronomy and optics. Very few and very weary are those who remain to the last hours of the last days.

After a short space the Senate House witnesses a remarkable scene. It is the last Friday in January, or thereabouts. It is again close on nine o'clock, and the candidates, or rather the friends of the candidates, meet once more in the Senate House. The candidates do not much like to come, and await their fate in their rooms: just as at Oxford, it is rather a point of honour that a man's friend, and not himself, should fetch his *testamur*. A proctor appears in the gallery with the list. As soon as the clock has struck, he says, "Senior Wrangler—Strutt, of Trinity." Then ensues a sort of Saturnalia. Men shout and cheer, and fling their caps in the air, and shake hands, and raise a mighty dust, and cheer tumultuously. Some perhaps will go frantically to the door and rush down the street screaming "Strutt." When order is a little restored, the name of the second wrangler is given. There is another terrific burst of cheering, in a vain endeavour to rival that first stupendous uproar. "Third," "Fourth," etc., are read out until the list of the wranglers is exhausted. Then the printed lists are freely scattered about by the proctors from the galleries on the heads of the multitudes below. Thus speaks an American writer, perhaps in rather "tall" phraseology:—"Talk of Italian beggars, beasts at a menagerie; why the rush, the scuffle, the trampling, the crushing of caps and cap-bearers in a shapeless mass, the tearing of gowns, coats, and the many papers that came slowly floating down, hardly ever to reach the floor, beats any tumult I ever saw, except the contention for coppers of the Irish beggars on the wharf at Queenstown before the tug-boat leaves for the Cunard steamer."

The Senate House is also the place where degrees are formally conferred. This is an extremely interesting sight to witness, and at times almost as saturnalian as that which we have just described. There is a good deal of waiting, and undergraduates fill up this leisurely period in their own cheerful way. The cheers are of course intermingled with a due proportion of groans and hisses. The first cheers are always cheers for the Queen, uniformly given with vociferous loyalty.

Then come cheers for the ladies, "in white," "in blue," "in green," and sometimes they become rather more particular than agreeable; "the lady with the diamond cross," or "the lady with the ostrich feather." Then political names are called out, which, according to the proclivities of the undergraduates, are received with tumultuous rejoicings, or with every outward sign of rage and abhorrence. Presently the undergraduates discern their natural enemies the proctors, accompanied by their "bull-dogs," as the attendants are termed, and some of the men probably commence an imitation of canine howling. Afterwards their wrath is diverted into a new direction. There are certain fellows of colleges who discharge the office of "fathers of colleges," albeit they are frequently very young themselves, whose office it is to present the men of their college for their degrees. These gentlemen, *ex officio* remained covered, which is a source of permanent irritation to the undergraduate mind. A thousand shrieks of "cap, cap, cap," "hat, hat, hat," and if perchance a father of a college leaves his safe position on the floor of the room, say to speak to some ladies, without uncovering, they are ready to shriek their hearts out. When they later give three cheers for the "fathers of colleges," they are sure to make an exception of such an obnoxious "father." In the meanwhile a long solemn procession is slowly making its way up the floor. It is headed by one who carries a silver mace, or, as it is irreverently termed, a poker. There are three of these mace-bearers, members of the university, who are called esquire bedels. They encompass the vice-chancellor, who is in scarlet and ermine, and who is the greatest man in Cambridge, except perhaps the senior wrangler of the day, and represents the chancellor himself, who is not expected to come down or to do much beyond giving his customary prizes. First of all, the senior wrangler is led up alone by himself amid a diapason of cheers that shake the building. He ought to be a happy man. He has obtained the highest honours that the university has to bestow; a unique intellectual distinction, as all the world acknowledges. Yet it is a curious reflection that the world at large thinks much more of the young horse that has won the Derby than of the trained intellectual athlete, who must have added moral and physical training to intense intellectual culture. The other men are then presented. The "father" makes a Latin speech to the vice-chancellor, and states that he presents to him this youth, whom he knows to be both in morals and learning a proper person for receiving the B.A. degree. They presently lay their caps on the floor, and kneel themselves. They fold their palms together, which the vice-chancellor takes between his, while he pronounces the Latin formula which makes a Bachelor of Arts. The summer commemoration, in which certain degrees are given, prize compositions read, etc., being, unlike the *enœnia* of Oxford, "out of term," is, except to those interested, in comparison an exceedingly tame affair.

It will now be easily understood why we consider the Senate House the very heart, a sort of Forum, or Capitol, of Cambridge. It is closely connected with another great institution, the University Library. Old Fuller says of this library in his time, "At this day the library (or libraries, shall I say?) of three successive archbishops, Painfull Parker, Pious Grindale, Politic Bancroft, are bestowed upon Cambridge, and are beautifully shelved, so that our

library will now move the beam, though it cannot weigh it down, to even the scale with Oxford." Evelyn, who inspected it in 1654, by no means reports favourably of it. George I was a great benefactor to it, for having purchased the fine library of Bishop Moore for six thousand guineas, he presented it to the university. Cambridge supported the Hanoverian settlement, while there was a strong Jacobite sentiment at Oxford. It so happened that a troop of horse was about the time of this gift stationed at the disaffected university, which gave an Oxford wag occasion for the following epigram:—

"Our royal master saw, with heedful eyes,
The wants of his two universities:
Troops he to Oxford sent, as knowing,—why
That learned body wanted loyalty;
But books to Cambridge gave, as well discerning
That that right loyal body wanted learning."

Sir William Brown, a Cambridge man and a Whig, produced the following neat retort, and our readers may take their choice between the two:—

"The King to Oxford sent his troop of horse,
For Tories own no argument but force;
With equal care to Cambridge books he sent,
For Whigs allow no force but argument."

Large benefactions have been made to the library, and it is one of the few libraries entitled to copies of all new books. At present the number of books and manuscripts approaches half a million. The most important manuscript is kept in a glass case near the entrance to the new room, and is the Uncial MS. of the Four Gospels and the Acts on vellum in Greek and Latin, presented to the university by Theodore Beza. This is the *Codex Bezae*, known by Biblical scholars as D.

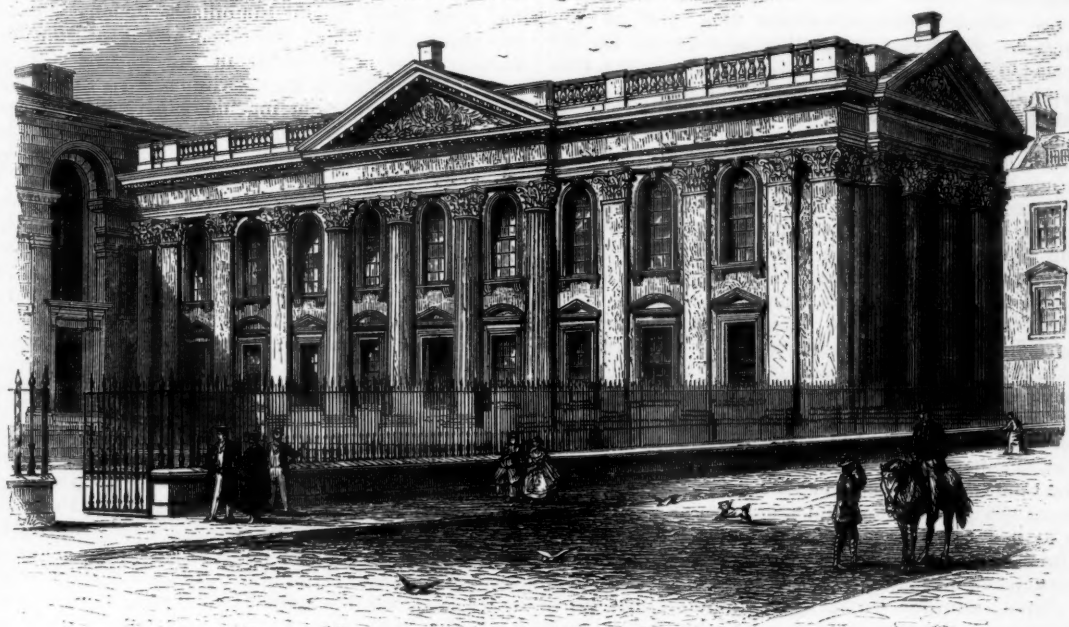
The front of the library presents an Italian arcade, finished with a balustrade, whereon are some richly carved arms. The part which we enter—accompanied by the invariable Master of Arts—is called the Old Library. A Master of Arts may take out ten volumes at a time—an immense boon to a non-resident Master; but at the Bodleian it is not permitted that a single volume should be withdrawn, not even by the chancellor himself. Here we see a marble bust of Charles Simeon, of King's, and a portrait of Henry Martyn, senior wrangler and martyr missionary. The northern division used to serve as a Senate House before the erection of the present building. Two rooms on the ground floor are appropriated to publications too heavy or too light for academic taste,—music, novels, and blue-books. The south side has the new room mentioned above, long and spacious, with a gallery on either side. There are many curiosities and various paintings in the library, but we must refer our readers elsewhere for details.

The basement story of the quadrangle forming the University Library is occupied by the schools, a term of much more limited import than at Oxford. In these schools were once carried on those lectures and disputations from which the academic terms of "wranglers" and "sophs" were derived. The "senior optime" and "junior optime" are also reliques of mediæval usages. In each case there is an ellipsis of the word "disputasti," that is, the master of the school would say, "Very well argued, sir." There is little in the interior of these old schools that calls for comment. The most important of them was called

the Glomery School (*Schola Glomeriæ*), but what the mystical term Glomery may originally have denoted has baffled all the acuteness and researches of the Cantabrigenses.

In one part of the schools is kept the Woodwardian or Geological Museum. This is very perfect of its

erected for him on the summit of the entrance tower of Trinity, where it remained till about the end of the last century. There is also still remaining a small observatory on the tower of the third court of St. John's College. The present handsome building, which is surrounded by a plantation and shrubbery, was built



SENATE HOUSE, CAMBRIDGE.

kind, forming a most noble collection of British and foreign fossils. Here is a magnificent specimen of the plesiosaurus, and a skeleton of the great fossil stag of Ireland, not to go further into details. This museum has been developed from a collection left to the university by Dr. Woodward in 1727. The last professor was Adam Sedgwick, who did so much to popularise geology in this country, and whose lectures for so many years proved one of the strongest intellectual stimulants that Cambridge could show. Mr. Sedgwick also nobly distinguished himself as a defender of revealed religion. Close to the Geological Museum is the Mineralogical Museum, which possesses a fine series of diamonds, presented by the late Lord Alford. We should also mention the new museum and lecture-rooms, where there is a very fine collection of birds, and which serves as a reading-room for the Cambridge Philosophical Society, which is a sort of Royal Society in itself. About a mile from the college is that very handsome modern building, the Observatory, conspicuous by its dome. Although Cambridge for so many years has been noted for its progress in mathematical science, yet it is only within the last forty or fifty years that it has possessed a proper observatory. When Sir Isaac Newton was Professor of Mathematics in the university, an observatory was

by public subscriptions and by a grant from the university chest. It is under the care of the Plumian Professor of Astronomy, to whose use the east wing is allotted. A yearly volume of astronomical observations is published by the Plumian Professor. In the year 1835, the late Duke of Northumberland, who was always doing generous things, caused to be made and presented to the university a magnificent telescope. For receiving and mounting it a revolving dome, twenty-seven feet in diameter, was expressly erected.

The new building of the Union Society, next door to the Round Church, though probably of less intrinsic importance than these public structures, is one of the utmost import to the comforts of undergraduates, and indeed has a place of its own in their training and culture. This fine edifice received, quite recently, a public opening, under the presidency of that Cambridge graduate and excellent poet, Lord Houghton, who justly occupies a conspicuous place in contemporary literature. These buildings, having been built expressly for the purpose, have a peculiar completeness and compactness of their own. The Oxford Union is a congeries of buildings which have grown up about an old house, constituting a larger edifice than the Cambridge Union, and

possessing in its debating-room one of the most beautiful and best-adorned rooms in Europe. The Cambridge Debating Room is, however, perhaps better adapted for its purposes, and fitted up with a greater regard to acoustic principles; a certain proportion having been closely observed between length, breadth, and height. The bare, unadorned expanse of wall behind the president's chair is unsightly. Debates take place every Tuesday evening throughout term, which may be attended by any member of the university. The quality of the debates of course varies greatly. At one time, in the annals of the Cambridge Union, there was a specially brilliant galaxy, when Macaulay, Praed, Bulwer Lytton, and the present Lord Chief Justice Cockburn took part in the debate. It is very interesting to refer to the old books of the Union, and observe the subjects that were brought forward by the young orators, or the sides which they took on the various political questions mooted. It is noticeable in the case of Macaulay—a point that will doubtless be noted when his biography is written—that when he first joined the Union he took a strong Tory side, but seems suddenly to have changed and gone over to the Whigs. Those were the palmiest days of the Cambridge Union, which we imagine are hardly likely to be repeated on the same brilliant scale. The reading-rooms are lavishly furnished with periodicals. The library, which is by no means extensive, is a very handsome room, as also is the fine room overhead, called the magazine-room. There is also a smoking-room added, which the other university lacks. By the comity of the universities, the members of the Oxford Union have the use of the Cambridge Union, and the converse. Last Long there was quite a colony of Oxford men at Cambridge, who had the free use of the Union. The Oxford Union stamps all letters, which the Cambridge Union, perhaps on a sounder principle, does not.

The Cambridge Union forms, therefore, besides a debating society, a very passable club—but both the great universities abound with clubs, though not of the same kind or to the same extent as the foreign universities. The link of connection is some common object and connection with some public school. Members of schools and colleges have now very much the habit of having annual dinners in town during the season. There is a club at Cambridge, modelled on the London clubs, called the Athenæum, which has considerable social and public interest. It has a library, takes in periodicals, and is considered a great centre for all social gatherings. There is a club called the A. D. C., and there are also various dining clubs connected with the Athenæum. There are musical clubs and athletic clubs which muster largely, and literary and scientific clubs which muster only slenderly.

But leaving undergraduates and their ways, to both of which we shall afterwards return, it is high time that we should move about the colleges. In doing so, we feel bound, from every consideration, to give the first place to the regal and ancient foundation of Trinity College—taking a bird's-eye view first, and filling up the details afterwards. On the portal of the beautiful chapter-house of York Cathedral, runs the legend, "Ut rosa flos florum, sic tu es domus domorum." Such an inscription might well suit Trinity College. It is, without exception, the noblest collegiate foundation in Christendom. Christ Church,

Oxford, perhaps comes next to it, but on the whole, Christ Church is left far behind. Its famous quadrangle does not equal the great court of Trinity. There are more than five hundred graduates at Trinity, nearly a third of the total number in the university. To attend in term-time, on a Sunday evening, the full service in the college chapel, to see the largest band of English youth that so assemble anywhere, representing so much the hope, promise, and culture of the country, is a spectacle not soon forgotten, and is in truth deeply affecting and suggestive. As the noble music is crashing after the service, let us stand back for a space in the antechapel. Behind us the keen, noble face of Sir Isaac Newton is looking down upon us in Roubillac's famous statue. The plaster cast which was taken after death for the sculptor's use is preserved in the library. How laconically sublime is the inscription from Læretius, "Qui genus humanum ingenio superavit," an expression as intensely true in its application as it is elevated in its simplicity. In front of that is Weekes's statue of Lord Bacon. In the inscription I was particularly struck by the expression "*sic sedebat*." The great philosopher—peer, statesman, lawyer, but greatest of all, as a thinker—with points and ruff well ordered, half sorrowfully, perhaps in his time of disgrace, is leaning back in his chair, lost in thought. He is forgetting his troubles and his enemies in the mighty visions which sweep before his mind's eye as to the fruitful results of his new philosophy. "*Sic sedebat*." I think the sculptor has truly rendered this "session of sweet silent thought," and has given a parallel to Bacon's usual expression concerning himself, "*Franciscus Bacon sic cogitavit*." As Macaulay truly said, "Posterity has obstinately refused to degrade Francis Bacon into Viscount Verulam." The common appellation of "Lord Bacon" is, in point of form, a misnomer: you may call him Francis Bacon, or you may call him Lord Verulam, yet Lord Bacon he never was. Yet we feel instinctively that the popular misnomer is vastly better than the correct appellation. There is Lord Macaulay's own statue, but the inscription is as yet unwritten; and what shall that inscription be? The likeness is startlingly good. He is just as I saw him one day in his own study, fresh from his books and from thought, as he was most natural, and not as in brilliant society or in the House. There is a statue to be erected here to William Whewell, a very prince among men, honest-intentioned, large-hearted, broad-minded, who by the sheer force of labour and ability raised himself from a humble sizar to be Master of Trinity and a governing mind in the university and in the republic of learned letters; with some faults and oddities, perchance, yet essentially an ἀνὰ ἀνδρῶν, who received all he had from his college and university, and with loving, overflowing heart, gave it back again. By the side of Newton there is a noble statue of Barrow, presented by the late Marquis of Lansdowne, with a fine Latin inscription. Barrow is best known by his sermons, but in other intellectual pursuits he excelled, and as a mathematician was probably inferior to Newton alone. Barrow paved the way for Newton, and by his own discoveries made the Newtonian discoveries, sooner or later, inevitable.

Looking at the stained windows of the chapel, there is one on which I dwell with special interest. It is a western window, the upper part of which represents the calling of James and John. The

lowest part is in honour of that sweetest of sacred poets, George Herbert; he is painted in, as if Lazarus, with Martha and Mary, attending the Saviour. To him belonged those two lofty titles of poet and saint. The librarian of Trinity has been kindly showing me the old Bursar books of the college, going back hundreds of years, and it is curious to notice that as a Scholar the poet is called Harbart, but later the usual orthography is adopted. Surely the men of Trinity must be deeply impressed with the intellectual and spiritual ancestry to which they belong,—the saints, the poets, the statesmen, the scholars, the thinkers, whose footsteps still seem to echo in these courts and colonnades,—that great company that includes such divines as Herbert and Barrow, and has always numbered most illustrious names, from the Newton and Bacon of the past to the Macaulay and Tennyson of our own days.

EMIGRATION TO UPPER CANADA.

THE persons who may be inclined to emigrate to Upper Canada are of three different descriptions, viz., the poor peasant or day-labourer; the man of small income and increasing family; the man possessing some capital, and wishing to employ it to advantage.

Persons of the first class never would repent if they emigrated to Upper Canada, for they could hardly fail to improve their circumstances and condition. Those who have been accustomed to a country life, and to country labour, are, of course, more fitted to cultivate land, and endure the hardships at first attendant upon a residence in the woods, than artisans or manufacturers, whose constitutions and habits of life are somewhat unfavourable to the successful pursuit of agriculture. But every individual who, to youth and health, joins perseverance and industry, will eventually prosper. Mechanics cannot fail to do well in Upper Canada; for, when not employed in clearing lands, they will find it easy to gain a little money by working at their professions; and they likewise have the advantage of being able to improve their dwelling-houses and repair their farming utensils, at no expense. Weavers being ignorant of country affairs, and unaccustomed to bodily exertion, make but indifferent settlers at first, and their trade is of no use to them whatever in the woods. Married persons are always more comfortable, and succeed sooner, in Canada, than single men; for a wife and family, so far from being a burden there, always prove sources of wealth. The wife of a new settler has many domestic duties to perform; and children, if at all grown up, are useful in various ways.

It sometimes happens that emigrants are too poor to purchase the provisions, stock, and farming utensils, that new settlers require, when commencing their labours. Persons so situated must hire themselves out, until they gain enough to make a beginning. They will be paid for their work in money, grain, cattle, or provisions; all which articles will prove equally useful and valuable to them. They will, at the same time, be acquiring a knowledge of the manners and customs of the country, the nature of the seasons, the mode of farming, and various other desirable particulars. The female part of the family may engage themselves as household servants, whose wages are always paid in money, and thus add

a good deal to the general stock. Many, who are now independent settlers, came to the province in absolute poverty; but, by pursuing the plan above described, were soon enabled to commence working upon their own lands, and to raise themselves beyond the reach of want.

Some people choose to clear a few acres, and crop them, before they build a house, or go to reside upon their lots. Others erect a habitation first of all, and move into it at once with their families. The first plan is most congenial to the feelings of British emigrants; for the partial cultivation that has been effected diminishes the wildness of the surrounding forests, and things are usually more comfortable and orderly within doors than they can be when the settler takes up his residence on his land before any trees have been cut down. But the expense of supporting a family, while clearing operations are going forward, is great, unless the idle members engage themselves as servants; and the work, particularly if hired persons are employed, does not proceed so fast as it would do, were the principal residing upon his lot, and superintending the business himself. Therefore, all settlers who have little money ought to set themselves down in the woods at once, and boldly commence chopping. This plan may subject them to a few hardships, but it will assuredly be for their advantage in the end.

Much of the immediate success of a settler depends upon the time of his arrival in the country. He ought to be out in time to choose a good lot, erect a habitation, clear several acres of ground, and sow it with wheat or indian corn, previous to the commencement of winter; thus getting the start by a whole year, of him who arrives late in the autumn, and who would only be preparing his land for seed when the other was reaping his first crop.

I shall now suppose that the emigrant has made all necessary arrangements for the occupation of his land. His first object then is to get a house built. If his lot lies in a settlement, his neighbours will assist him in doing this without being paid; but if far back in the woods he must hire people to work for him. The usual dimensions of a house are eighteen feet by sixteen. The roof is covered with bark or shingles, and the floor with rough-hewn planks, the interstices between the logs that compose the walls being filled up with pieces of wood and clay. Stones are used for the back of the fire-place, and a hollow cone of coarse basket-work does the office of a chimney. The whole cost of a habitation of this kind will not exceed £12, supposing the labourers had been paid for erecting it; but as almost every person can have much of the work done *gratis*, the expense will not perhaps amount to more than £5 or £6.

Whenever the house is completed, the emigrant ought to bring his family, cattle, provisions, and farming utensils, upon the lot. He should, if possible, have a couple of oxen, a cow, two pigs, a harrow, and an axe. The cost of the whole will not be great. But many settlers commence their labours without any cattle or implements at all, contriving to borrow what they want from their neighbours, and returning the obligation in work. If the emigrant's location lies in a settlement, he will find it advantageous to purchase his provisions there, particularly if there is much land-carriage between it and the nearest market. Flour and pork are the only articles of subsistence which can be conveniently transported into the woods.

The clearing of land overgrown with timber is an operation so tedious and laborious, that different plans have been devised for abridging it, and for obtaining a crop from the ground before it is completed. The easiest and most economical system is that named *girdling*. The land is first cleared of brushwood and small timber, and then a ring of bark is cut from the lower part of every tree; and if this is done in the autumn, the trees will be dead and destitute of foliage the ensuing spring; at which time the land is sown, without receiving any culture whatever except a little harrowing. This plan evidently possesses no advantage except that of enabling the settler to supply his immediate wants, at the expense of comparatively little time and labour. The crops obtained in this way are of course scanty and of inferior quality. The dead trees must be cut down and removed at last; and being liable to fall during high winds, the lives of both labourers and cattle are endangered.

After the trees have been felled, the most suitable kinds are split into rails for fences, and the remainder, being cut into logs twelve feet long, are hauled together into large piles, and burnt. The land cleared in this manner is sown with wheat, and harrowed two or three times, and in general an abundant crop rewards the toils of the owner.

After the felling, dividing, and burning of the timber have been accomplished, the stumps still remain, disfiguring the fields, and impeding the effectual operation of the plough and harrow. The immediate removal of the roots of the trees is impracticable, and they are therefore always allowed to fall into decay, to which state they are generally reduced in the space of eight or nine years. Pine stumps, however, seem scarcely susceptible of decomposition, as they frequently show no symptoms of it after half a century has elapsed.

In Upper Canada grain is always put under cover instead of being made into stacks: and therefore the farmer must build a barn, which at first is usually formed of logs, in the same way as a dwelling-house; however, it does not cost nearly so much, no inside work being necessary. But when he becomes wealthier, and is more at leisure, he may erect a frame-barn, so called because it is constructed of joiner's work, and covered with boards. Such buildings are commonly made fifty feet long and forty wide.

When the emigrant has found himself comfortably established upon his lot, and surmounted his first difficulties, he ought to make a small kitchen-garden. This is a convenience which few Canadian farmers care to possess. They in general suppose that it requires a great deal of time and attention, but most erroneously; for the soil is so productive that all useful vegetables grow without much culture. Every settler should likewise endeavour to raise a good stock of poultry. The first cost of them will be small, and the refuse from his barn will be sufficient to support any number he may require. They must be put into a house every night, otherwise the foxes will very soon carry them all away.

The emigrant will sometimes require assistance in the business of the farm, particularly if he has no family. Those whom he hires to work for him will generally be contented to receive two-thirds, or perhaps the whole, of their wages in grain. This makes payment very easy to the farmer, as the nominal value of his produce is usually equal to double the sum it has cost him to raise it; but if he has neigh-

bours, he will often be able to get his work done without any direct outlay, it being customary for the inhabitants of a new settlement mutually to help each other, by accepting labour in return for labour. There is thus no outlay on either side, every one affording another a degree of assistance equal to what he has received from him. A man, perhaps, borrows a waggon for a day from his neighbour, and repays him by lending his oxen for an equal length of time. A new settlement is sometimes twenty or thirty miles distant from a mill, and the roads are generally so bad, that the person who carries grain to it waits till it is ground, although he should be detained several days. When this is the case, each individual, by turns, conveys to the mill the grain of three or four of his neighbours, and thus the great waste of labour which would be occasioned were every one to take his own produce there separately is avoided. From these simple facts the advantage of living in a settlement must be very evident.

When the farmer is able to raise a larger quantity of produce than is required for the support of his family, there are several ways in which he may dispose of the surplus. In many new settlements the influx of emigrants is so great as to produce a demand for grain more than equal to the supply. But should there be no demand of this kind, he may carry his produce to the merchants. They will give him in exchange, broad-cloth, implements of husbandry, groceries, and every sort of article that is necessary for his family, and, perhaps, even money at particular times. He will likewise often have it in his power to barter wheat for live stock of different kinds, and can hardly fail to increase his means, although without a regular market for his surplus produce, if he gets initiated into the system of traffic prevalent in the country.

In Upper Canada the winter is the farmer's idle season, the depth of the snow, and the severity of the cold, alike putting a stop to agricultural operations. But still there are several things which require attention, and particularly the live stock, which ought to be regularly fed. The farmer must, indeed, be careful in this respect, both in summer and in winter. As there is no grass in the woods, and as new settlers cannot raise fodder for their cattle immediately, they are obliged to buy either hay or straw, or pumpkins, to feed them, or to cut down trees for them to browse upon. Oxen and young cows thrive well enough on the tender shoots of the birch, maple, etc.; but sheep must have hay or turnips, and ought to be secured from the wolves every night. Every settler should, in the course of the winter, haul a quantity of firewood sufficient to supply him the whole year; and the goodness of the roads will enable him to do this without much difficulty. When the weather is bad he may employ his time within doors, in improving the interior of his dwelling-house, or amusing himself by the fire, which can always be made a warm and cheerful one, from the profusion of fuel that the poorest person has continually at command. Those who delight in field-sports may go into the woods in search of deer, which usually abound in the vicinity of new settlements. In Canada, the privilege of shooting them, and all other game, belongs equally to the lord and the peasant.

The emigrant must not expect to live very comfortably at first. Pork, bread, and what vegetables he may raise, will form the chief part of his diet for perhaps two years. To these articles, however, he

may occasionally add venison, if he is a tolerable sportsman. The various kinds of grain which farmers raise, enable them to enjoy a great many sorts of bread that are not known in Britain. Buck-wheat, rye, and Indian corn make excellent cakes; and they have several ways of using flour, besides that of baking it into loaves. All the above-mentioned articles, conjoined with vegetables, poultry, and milk which every settler can have in the course of time without much trouble or expense, afford sufficient materials for the support of an abundant and comfortable table. In Upper Canada, the people live much better than persons of a similar class in Britain; and to have proof of this, it is only necessary to visit almost any hut in the backwoods. The interior of it seldom fails to display many substantial comforts, such as immense loaves of beautiful bread, entire pigs hanging round the chimney, dried venison, trenchers of milk, and bags of Indian corn. Many of the farmers indeed live in a coarse and dirty manner; but this arises from their own ignorance, not from a want of those things that are essential to comfort and neatness.

I have now detailed, in the shortest manner, the successive steps which emigrants of the lower class must take, in order to establish themselves in Upper Canada, and given a general outline of the difficulties they have to contend with, and of the counterbalancing advantages. The hardships which poor settlers must at first encounter are sometimes rather severe and trying to their patience; but if they are active and industrious, they will become tolerably comfortable, and obtain a sort of rude independence, in the course of three or four years; being then able to raise enough of every kind of produce for their own consumption, and likewise sufficient to purchase all the necessaries of life. But were the privations which emigrants must endure on first taking up lands far greater than they *really* are, I believe few who were well acquainted with the true state of things would hesitate in preferring Upper Canada to Great Britain, inasmuch as most people would rather purchase ease and abundance at the expense of a few years' hard labour, than remain exposed to poverty and its attendant miseries during their whole lives, as is the lot of the bulk of the British peasantry.

The second class of emigrants, viz., men of small income and increasing family, will find Upper Canada in many respects, an advantageous place of residence. When I say this, I of course include those persons only who do not derive their incomes from the exercise of any profession, and who have no obvious means of improving their circumstances. Half-pay officers, annuitants, etc., are in this situation. An individual of this class may do well in Upper Canada, if he possesses a farm, and raises enough of all kinds of produce to supply his own wants. With £250 a year, and fifty or sixty acres of land, he might, by proper management, support a large family in comfort and abundance; but he would not augment his income by farming extensively, unless he engaged in the business *practically*, and were assisted by his children; the price of labour being so high, and that of produce so low, that the agriculturalist cannot derive much profit from the returns made by the soil if he employs hired men to work it. Respectable families suffer a good deal of inconvenience from a difficulty of obtaining household servants, most of whom are both negligent and unprincipled, and conceive themselves insulted if the person who proposes to hire them makes any inquiry about their characters.

Some will not engage themselves, unless they are allowed to sit at table with the master and mistress of the house. Emigrants sometimes bring servants from Britain; but such seldom remain long with them after their arrival in Canada, their ideas and prospects being directed into new channels by the system of independence and equality which prevails in the country. The women are soon married, and the men become landholders. Some people bind their domestics by indentures, to continue with them for a certain time; but this plan seldom answers well, as persons so articulated are apt to grow insolent and troublesome, whenever their bondage becomes disagreeable to them.

To the man of capital, Upper Canada offers few inducements. The province indeed requires the presence of such persons and the circulation of their capital, more than anything else; but the benefit of a country will, of course, always be a secondary consideration with every one, when individual interest is concerned, and therefore it cannot be expected that many persons of wealth should emigrate to Upper Canada. There are a good many ways of employing capital, but few which will ensure such a speedy return as would in general be considered necessary. The mercantile business is already overdone.

[These hints are from an old colonist. Though written and printed many years ago, they are equally applicable to the existing state of Upper Canada. A clergyman in Upper Canada has lately written a letter in the "Times," cautioning intending emigrants against being too sanguine; reminding them that although wages may be high, the long months of winter must be provided for.]

THE PENINSULA OF SINAI.

BY JOHN KEAST LORD, F.Z.S., NATURALIST TO THE EGYPTIAN EXPLORATION EXPEDITIONS.

CHAPTER VIII.—BIRDS OF WADY GHARANDL—GEOLOGY OF THE DISTRICT.

WHEN water, and, as a consequence, trees and plants are met with, there too, in all likelihood, birds and insects will be discovered. So it proved in this wady. Several species of the *Falconidæ* (which I procured) waged perpetual war upon the fly-catchers, seed-feeders, and other birds that lived in the bushes and by the water-side. One small bird with rather a showy dress of black and white, seemed to do nothing all the day long but dodge the birds of prey, and sing a kind of rollicking song between whistles. His favourite lair was amongst the thick tangle of the acacia-trees, the topmost branches his orchestra. There he loved to sit and warble in the sunshine; but no sooner did a prowling hawk espy the minstrel, than down he swooped at him like a thunderbolt; but ever watchful, the singer was not easily surprised. Slipping down through the branches of the tree, he vanished like a ghost, much to the hawk's surprise and discomfiture; but no sooner had the little fellow disappeared, than up he was again through another part of the tree, and as if laughing at the prey, sang louder and jollier than ever. A small wryneck, *Yunc torquilla*, amused me greatly, and I delighted to watch it. It was prettily marked, as wrynecks usually are, its colour consisting of various shades of brown delicately blended and exquisitely arranged, the larger wing feather, dotted with brown and

yellowish rust-coloured spots, giving the bird's side an appearance like chequer-work. I may explain, perhaps, that the tongue of the wryneck is curiously constructed, being of great length, nearly round, and terminated by a horny, sharp-pointed tip, serrated or barbed like a spear. This singular tongue can be extended beyond the bill to a considerable distance. For some time I was puzzled at the bird's proceedings. Standing often for a long time on the ground, it did not appear to move, but so shy was it of my approach, that it darted away whenever I neared it. At last, hidden by a bush, I was enabled to discover that the bird, although apparently still, was actively employed catching ants with its spear-like tongue. So rapidly did this organ pass in and out of the bird's bill, that it was difficult to follow it with the eye. Having watched the wryneck some time, I shot it, and found on examination that the little fellow was gorged with ants, some of them not even dead. I am disposed to think the ants are not actually speared, but that the tongue is covered with an adhesive secretion sufficiently tenacious to hold the insect until carried to the mouth. I failed to detect anything like a puncture in the ants swallowed, although I examined them with a powerful lens, and am disposed to doubt the possibility of the wryneck stabbing anything so small as the desert ant, especially as its body is approximately cylindrical, and clad in hard, polished armour.

Small water birds—I obtained three species, *Totanus hypoleucus*, *Totanus stagnatilis*, *Tringa minuta*—were busy along the course of the stream chasing the insects that came to drink or gambol amidst the water-plants. Now and then a rail stalked stealthily from out the fringing herbage; but shy and crafty by nature, darted in again like a scared rat on the slightest noise or movement. Busiest of all, fearless and familiar even in the wilderness, was the desert water-wagtail (*Motacilla alba*). It differs scarcely at all from our pied wagtail, so well known to every child, and, like it, makes short erratic runs this way and that way, tossing up its tail, bobbing down its head, and jerking its body; never still, always on the move, and from dawn "till dewy eve" passing a merry life, feeding, singing, and love-making with a wholesome seasoning of parental cares. I procured a great many birds in this wady, but it would not interest my readers were I to make special mention of them.

Regarding the interesting geological features of Wady Ghârândel, I shall quote briefly from a paper read at the Geological Society.* "The lower end of Wady Ghârândel, where the valley proper abuts on the alluvial plain of gravel and sand, extending about a mile from the beach inland, is about sixty or eighty feet wide, between cliffs of calcareous gritstone, finely and regularly stratified that comes out from underneath the gypsum-marls, which dip to the north, at an angle of about 20 degrees. These beds are not very fossiliferous: only a few small *Nautili*, a *Pecten*, a small *Turritella*, two or three single valves of brachiopods, and a *Surpula*, were found; and required to be chiselled off the faces of the slabs, in order to detach them from the rock. On the south side of the valley they form a tolerably high and steep cliff, with a flat top, covered with a coarse flint gravel. South of this point, going towards Hammam Faraoun, the

escarpment is lower, and frequently cut back on to dry valleys, with many detached pinnacles and square outlines of limestone of a white chalky character, nearly horizontal, and with a few layers of flint near the bottom. When broken, the white limestones are often found to be extremely bituminous; and in a small, dry valley about a mile south of Wady Ghârândel, a thin layer of bitumen, similar to that of the Red Sea, was found included in a fallen block. Much of the lower limestone is of a snuff-brown colour, from the amount of bitumen contained, forming a material similar to the Seyssel asphalt-rock, employed for making pavements in England and on the continent of Europe."

The day after we encamped, when I sallied out in the morning, the sky was blue and cloudless, and the sun shone even more brightly than usual. Making my way for a short distance down the wady, I reached a kind of natural bath in a cave under the shelving rocks. A part of the stream trickled into it, so that it formed a delightful place for bathing, and no person can have any idea how refreshing a good plunge into the water is to one who has been travelling over the sandy ground. By the time I had completed my bathing, I noticed that the atmosphere was becoming dim, as if clouds had obscured the sun; then, as I hurried out of my cave, fitful puffs of wind came sweeping round the rocks, bearing along quantities of fine sand and dust. I knew what was coming—that scourge of the desert, a sand-storm. The Bedouins were scampering in every direction in pursuit of their camels, the soldiers and dragomans were hard at it making taut the tent ropes, and rolling large stones upon the tent pegs to keep them from drawing. Mustapha and his familiar were in hot pursuit of the poultry: indeed, everybody was on the *qui vive*.

The rapidity with which the wind increased in force was astounding, and the like of which I had never witnessed before. All surrounding objects began to rapidly disappear, and often were completely hidden by the sheets or clouds of sand that came swirling past, like mist on a Sutherland hill-side. It drove against my face with such violence and force as to cause a feeling of pricking heat, like the sensation of a blister; it got into my ears, into my eyes, and through my mouth down into my throat. I had really no little difficulty to make way to my tent, for I felt completely bewildered, a sensation I had before experienced when caught in a snow-storm upon the prairies. Nothing we could do served in the slightest degree to keep the sand out of the tents: everything we had was actually, and not in mere figure of speech, buried. There was nothing to be done but to quietly bear it until the tempest lulled. Fortunately, we were not travelling, or it would have proved vastly more annoying. The Bedouins squatted upon the ground behind their camel saddles, with their backs towards the storm, and wrapping their heads in their shawls, patiently waited until it was over. The camels, too, clearly knew all about it, for they at once, when the storm came on, lay as close to the ground as they could, and tried by every manœuvre to keep the sand from out their nostrils. The sand tempest lasted until late in the afternoon, when the wind suddenly dropped, and in ten or fifteen minutes everything, excepting ourselves and our tents, was as bright and clear and calm as though no storm had passed over us. These desert storms of sand and wind come on exactly like a storm at sea, continue for nearly a

* "On a Geological Reconnaissance in Arabia Petrea, in the Spring of 1868." By H. Baermann.

day, and blow with a steady but average force. If you can imagine a dense snow-storm, accompanied with a fierce gale of wind, and that in lieu of snow fine sand is the material falling and drifting, you can form a tolerably good mental picture of the desert sand-storm.

At some little distance from the mouth of the wady, say two miles, in a northerly direction, is a narrow gorge, rather than a valley, called Wady Taragi. On either side the walls of rock tower up to a height of over two hundred feet, while at the bottom the width does not in many places exceed fifteen. This remarkable gorge is entirely cut, most likely by the action of water, through beautiful granular alabaster veined into wonderful wavy stripes. A few pools are scattered at intervals, the hollows retaining the water being basins, into which small waterfalls splash in heavy flood time. The water is not drinkable, being salt and bitter. This wady we traced for about a mile and a half: it was most tortuous in its course, but there was no sign as far as the exploration went of the gorge coming to an end. One of the most remarkable effects of water action carrying along with it quantities of sand, as it does in the time of flood, is shown in this alabaster valley. About the water level the cliffs on each side are regularly scored or sculptured out into parallel grooves, in depth about half-an-inch, and divided from each other by fine sharp-edged septums, which are mostly vertical, and end at the flood level. The flutings on an Ionic column well illustrate these furrows cut in the alabaster. Now, these flutings, so say our geologists, are entirely due to the erosive action of water charged with sand in trickling down over the face of the rock from the top of the cliffs. The bottom of the valley is so hollowed out by the wash of the winter torrents into a trough-like form, that walking on it and keeping one's footing is no easy matter. "At intervals all along the valley an old alluvium of gravel and sand with fragments of gypsum, the last being exceedingly rough and irregular in outline, is seen at heights of between fifty and seventy feet. This gravel has been eroded into steep cliffs. The alabaster occurring in this valley somewhat resembles that of Chellaston and Fauld in Staffordshire, but without the red veins, being only mottled with blue or grey bands of clay instead. The best blocks seen lying loose on the watercourse, and tumbled from the cliffs cubed about four feet on the side; but it would be difficult to find one of this size perfectly sound, though there are many places where large masses might be got by quarrying. The semi-transparent variety of alabaster, such as that of Volterra, does not occur here; but nodules of a somewhat similar character were observed in the dark shales farther on."

On each side of Wady Ghârândel the escarpments are of a good height, but in a most tumbled and uneven condition. Plenty of gypsum occurs of a white opaque character, which is superimposed upon softer marls, and as these marls are acted on and dissolved, or washed out by the rains, so huge blocks of the rock have been detached and have rolled down to the lower levels. When rambling along at the base of the hills one seems to walk about in gulleys and narrow passages like so many mazes made of huge tumbled rocks. Very little vegetation is to be found on the slopes of these hills: they are mostly bare, rugged, and, save to the geologist, altogether

devoid of any interest. In tramping about up in the gulleys along the wady, I constantly saw the recent traces of hyenas; but unluckily, or otherwise it may be, I never met with one. The dragoman Mahomet the Egyptian, who had previously lived a long time on the Peninsula with Major Macdonald, told me some terrible stories about the hyena's ferocity, and persisted that when near the sea they were always of the most bloodthirsty dispositions. This he accounted for from the fact that they occasionally devoured cast-away mariners, and having once glutted themselves upon human flesh and blood, became man-eaters for ever afterwards. I certainly did not believe a word of it, and my experience has since proved to me, more than once, that the hyena is an arrant coward, and bolts if it can, like a scared cur, whenever resolutely confronted.

Varieties.

BANKRUPTCY LAW.—The best proof of the very different character of the new law from the old one, is to be found in the extraordinary rush to take advantage of the old law during the month of December, the last list in the "Gazette" for the year 1869 being actually 524, against 89 for the corresponding day of 1868.

COLUMBIA MARKET.—The central square of this market has been opened as a wholesale fish market, which will relieve the overcrowded mart of Billingsgate. It cannot fail to be of great advantage to the poor of London to be enabled to buy packages of the rougher sort of fish at a cheap rate, and near to their homes. Senders of fish will ultimately be able to transmit their consignments from Yarmouth, Lowestoft, Harwich, and the whole of the eastern coast direct into the market. Columbia Market is within three-quarters of a mile of the terminus and goods station of the Great Eastern Railway. Miss Burdett Coutts requests us to correct an error in our article on the market in the January Part. "The contracts," she writes, "were never exceeded, and I never spent more than I intended." The writer of the article had repeated the rumour that the ornamental masonry was more than had been at first proposed, attributing the excess of cost, not to any fault of the contractors, but to the benevolent wish of Miss Burdett Coutts to give additional employment to the workmen.

DEEP-SEA EXPLORATIONS.—Philosophers had imagined that all life would cease at an ocean depth of 300 fathoms, and that the temperature of the deep sea was everywhere thirty-nine degrees. It was found, on the contrary, that abundant life existed at far greater depths, and that the deep-sea temperature varied within somewhat wide limits. More remarkable still, it was found that a difference in bottom temperature between thirty-two degrees and forty-seven degrees existed at points only eight or ten miles distant from each other, beneath an uniform surface temperature of about fifty-two degrees; and that where this was the case in the cold area the bottom was formed of barren sandstone, mingled with fragments of older rock, and inhabited by a comparatively scanty fauna, of an arctic or boreal character, while in the adjacent warm area the bottom surface was cretaceous, and the more abundant fauna presented characteristics due to the more temperate climate. Hence an upheaval of a few miles of the sea bottom subject to these conditions would present to the geologist of the future two portions of surface totally different in their structure, the one exhibiting traces of a depressed, the other of an elevated temperature; and yet these formations would have been contemporaneous and conterminous. Wherever similar conditions are found upon the dry land of the present day, it had been supposed that the high and the low temperature, the formation of chalk and the formation of sandstone, must have been separated from each other by long periods, and the discovery that they may actually co-exist upon adjacent surfaces has done no less than strike at the very root of many of the customary assumptions with regard to geological time. The importance of these results, and the magnitude of the considerations springing from them, induced the Admiralty, at the

renewed instance of the Council of the Royal Society, to assist in the prosecution of further inquiries. Her Majesty's ship Porcupine, Captain Calver, R.N., was fitted up in the way suggested by the experience gained on the first expedition, and was provided with proper dredges for the deep-sea, hauling-in machinery, deep-sea thermometers defended against pressure, and apparatus for the conduct of various chemical and other inquiries. She left Galway, under the scientific charge of Mr. Gwyn Jeffreys, on the 18th of May last year, and carried on the exploration in a westerly direction, getting into deeper and deeper water, until she reached the Porcupine bank, so named from one of her former surveys. She next proceeded in a north-westerly course towards Rockall, and thence returned to Donegal Bay. In this cruise the dredging and temperature soundings were carried down to a depth of nearly 1,500 fathoms. Early in July she started from Cork, under the scientific charge of Dr. Wyville Thompson, in a south-westerly course, for the purpose of carrying down the explorations to still greater depths, which were found at the northern extremity of the Bay of Biscay, about 250 miles west of Ushant. Here the dredge was successfully worked at the extraordinary depth of 2,435 fathoms, nearly equal to the height of Mont Blanc, and exceeding by 500 fathoms the depth from which the first Atlantic telegraph cable was recovered. She returned in about a fortnight, and started from Belfast in August for a third cruise, under the scientific charge of Dr. Carpenter, who was accompanied by Dr. Wyville Thompson. The object of this cruise was the more detailed survey of the ground previously examined by the Lightning, and the vessel remained out until September 15, 1868, visiting Thorshaven, in the Faroe Islands, and Lerwick. The results of the three expeditions went entirely to confirm, and in many respects to enlarge, the conclusions that had been drawn from the more limited surveys of the preceding year.

MEDICAL MISSIONARIES.—At a meeting for establishing in London a training school for medical missionaries, Dr. Burns Thomson narrated many striking facts from his own experience in charge of the medical mission station in the Cowgate, Edinburgh. Both men and women at first declined to receive him and shut the door against him, in the belief that he was a clergyman, but on learning that he was a medical man, cordially welcomed him, and gladly heard him speak to them about the Saviour and the way of salvation. He had visited places where the coat had been torn off the back of the ordinary missionary, who was glad to escape with his life; had conversed with the Roman Catholic inmates on religion, and had taught them out of the Douay Testament. Of the 9,000 that annually attended the missionary dispensary, about 4,000 were Roman Catholics, and, in spite of all that the priests could do, these poor people came to be plied with God's truth. He believed there was not another man in the kingdom who could say that 4,000 Roman Catholics came voluntarily and cheerfully in the course of a year to hear God's truth.

O'CONNORVILLE. The late Mr. Feargus O'Connor purchased in 1847 a farm of nearly 300 acres in the parish of Minster Lovell, Oxfordshire, on behalf of the shareholders of his land company. This was one of three or four estates purchased by him, and it is said there were 70,000 shareholders. This estate he divided into 85 allotments of from two to four acres each, and built a cottage on each allotment, distributing the plots and cottages among those shareholders who had paid up the full amount of a share (£5) in their order as they stood upon his list, and a shareholder obtaining possession of his little farm received from the company's funds "head money" of £7 10s. an acre, and was charged with his share of interest of a mortgage debt of £5,000. The estate, with cottage building, roadmaking, etc., cost £20,000, or, with the head money, £22,500. The land is a good deal of it on cornbrash, and said to be worth about £2 an acre. The Assistant-Commissioner, who recently visited Oxfordshire on behalf of the Commission on Employment in Agriculture, found only two of the original allottees in possession, and the allotment of one of these had just been sold. The seller said, "he had been 20 years learning how to live without victuals, and had just about come to it." As long as the head-money lasted all went well, but after a time the allottees, who were chiefly artisans from large towns, and did not like hard agricultural work, began to leave their allotments, and the interest of the debt not being paid, the mortgagees endeavoured (but in vain) to sell the estate. Eventually the affairs of the company were wound up in Chancery. A considerable number of the allotments were sold, and the possession of the remainder was confirmed to the allottees on payment of a rent-charge which, in the case of a four-acre allotment, amounted to £9 10s. The Assistant-Commissioner considers that a tolerably fair farm rent, allowing £3 for the cottage; but the person above men-

tioned has sold his four acres and cottage for £106, subject to the rent-charge of £9 10s. If the shareholders could have held on until now they would have sustained no loss except that of interest. But to make a living for himself and family off even the largest of these allotments would require all the energy and skill of an able-bodied agricultural labourer; to the class of men whom Mr. O'Connor introduced it was almost an impossibility. Mr. Freer, a landowner, has purchased about a third of the estate. He has put three or four allotments together, letting them to one man, who sublets the cottages. The allotments, he says, are let at 50s. an acre with £3 additional for the cottage. Many of the occupiers work for wages as well with neighbouring farmers. Mr. Freer says, "A man may get a living off ten acres let at a fair rent, or he may get a living off (say) two acres, for which he pays no rent or rent-charge; but none of those who have these allotments singly at a rent are able to live off them. A man whom I know purchased an allotment of four acres for £160 17 years ago, soon paid off £100 of his debt, and has made a living since; he wants £350 for his allotment now, and could easily get £300." The Assistant-Commissioner describes the cottages as built of stone and slated, having three rooms on the ground floor, each 12 feet square, a piggy and shed. The pattern is the same throughout. He says he never saw a place more dreary and devoid of all the picturesque features of a country village.—*Times*.

IMPERIAL TAXATION.—For comparison with the returns of 1870, we may state that the gross amount raised by Imperial taxation in the financial year ending the 31st of March, 1869, was £69,970,814, a larger sum than for several years. The Customs produced £22,585,529; the Excise, £21,084,365; stamps, £9,505,238; "taxes"—income, land, and assessed taxes—£12,242,101; the Post-office, £4,553,581. These are the gross products. From the Customs revenue we must deduct £293,884 for drawbacks and repayments on over entries, reducing the real available produce to £22,291,645. The cost of collection of the Customs duties was £786,435, further reducing the net produce to £21,505,210. The cost of collection of the inland revenue—Excise, stamps, and "taxes"—was £1,591,951. The cost of collecting the Post-office revenue was £3,198,564, reducing the net revenue to £1,355,017. The total public income of the United Kingdom of course includes, besides this produce of taxation, receipts from the Crown lands and various miscellaneous receipts.

BOOK PUBLISHING IN 1869.—A statistical view of the publishing trade during the past twelve months may interest. During that period our columns have given the full transcript of title-pages, with size, price, publishers' names, and number of pages, of 5,136 books. This gross number includes 167 of mere re-entries for changes of price, and 397 imported new books from America, leaving a total of new books and new editions published in Great Britain from January 1 to December 30, 1869, of 4,572. It is worthy of note the large numbers of new editions that have appeared during the year, three-tenths, or nearly one-third of the whole: demonstrating towards one of two conclusions, either that publishers are now more scrupulous in distinguishing their reprints, or else that there are really more successful books published than we had believed in. It may be interesting to give a summary in months of issue, as showing the variations of periodical pressure on the literary market.

	New Books.	New Editions.	American Imports.
January	219	72	40
February	166	72	39
March	309	185	30
April	223	118	21
May	313	117	51
June	218	104	35
July	210	70	40
August	243	102	30
September	100	80	32
October	378	144	27
November	354	125	28
December	400	117	24
	3,253	1,319	397

Making the total during the twelve months of 4,969 new books and new editions. A classification of the subjects of these works gives, as last year, one-fourth to

Theology	1,049	Law	143
Education, Philology, and Classical Literature	478	Travel and Geographical Research	290
Juvenile Works	508	History and Biography	295
Novels and other Works of Fiction	464	Poetry and the Drama	275
Political and Social Economy, and Trade and Commerce	324	Year Books and bound volumes of Serials	237
Arts and Sciences, and Fine Art Books	343	Medicine and Surgery	161
		Miscellaneous	407
			4,969

—*Publishers' Circular.*